DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 372 041 SP 035 327

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TITLE The Need for Knowledge about Teacher Educators.

PUB DATE Jun 94
NOTE 41p.
AVAILABLE FROM Richard J. Reynolds, Dept. of Education, Eastern Connecticut State University, 83 Windham Street, Willimantic, CT 06226 ($3 per copy; $2 each for 3 or more).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Demography; Elementary Secondary Education; Higher Education; Literature Reviews; *Teacher Attitudes; *Teacher Behavior; *Teacher Characteristics; Teacher Education Programs; *Teacher Educators; *Teacher Effectiveness

ABSTRACT

This paper synthesizes the impressions of what is known about members of the education professorate, examines the relationships between teacher educators' formative experiences and personal and professional characteristics, and attempts to answer the etiological question: who is an effective teacher educator? A body of literature on the demographic characteristics of individuals charged with preparing the nation's teachers indicates the "model" teacher educator is a 50-year-old Anglo male reared in a rural, lower to middle class family. Conformist values were upheld in the family and in the culturally homogeneous public school he attended, and he completed his doctoral program in piecemeal fashion at various institutions close to home. As a faculty member, the model teacher educator works over 50 hours a week, teaching 3 or 4 courses per term. The autonomy and freedom the job provides and the opportunity to work with students are satisfying; low salary, service activities, and the constraints of the bureaucracy, are among the least enjoyable aspects of the job. The model teacher educator considers his job to be stressful in terms of time pressures and the increased emphasis on measurable outputs. However, he is in good shape and deals successfully with the pressures and tensions of the job. This kind of data can have implications for both teacher educator selection and preparation. (Contains approximately 70 references.) (LL)

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ED 372 041

THE NEED FOR KNOWLEDGE ABOUT TEACHER EDUCATORS

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Cruickshank (1984) and Houston et al. (1990), among others, have argued that the field of teacher education is in need of greater scholarly study. The former has suggested that a number of unfortunate conditions exist that work against such knowledge production. A primary inhibitor is the absence of research-guiding models that make clear teacher education's constituent parts and how they may interact. As a consequence of this concern, Cruickshank proposed an incipient model or representation of the field that contains five principal components; teacher educators, teacher education students, the contexts of teacher education, the content of the teacher preparation curriculum, and instruction. The outcome variable of the model is the preparation of sufficient, effective teachers. It is incumbent upon teacher educators to study the five principal variables, their associations and relationships, and the impact each and all have on the desired outcome.

One of those variables, teacher educators, is the focus of his paper. Who are teacher educators? How are they prepared? What do they do? How effective is their work? To answer these questions a great number (and

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variety) of scholarly sources were consulted. Both descriptive and normative data sources provided information with regard to teacher educators';

> (a) formative experiences (family and socioeconomic background, geographic origins, precollegiate and collegiate education, and public school teaching experience); (b) personal characteristics (age, ethnicity, gender, emotional and intellectual status, self-confidence and social success, values and attitudes, and perceptions); (c) professional characteristics (motives for becoming teacher educators, professional responsibilities, work load, scholarly productivity, professorial rank, ability to establish mutually beneficial relationships with students and colleagues, teaching styles and ability, and job satisfaction); and (d) perception of professional rewards and recognition (legitimacy concerns, image problems, the pitfalls of the reward system).

The results of normative inquiry will permit us to posit associations. What are the relationships between or among formative experiences, human characteristics, and professional characteristics and between and among these things and teacher education student learning and satisfaction? Inquiry of the kind suggested could have implications for teacher educator selection and preparation. Additionally, results would help us to see the role and significance of teacher educators as one of the five principal variables within the field.

A first step toward conducting further scholarly study of teacher educators is the determination of what presently is known about them. In his 1990 study, Cruickshank made inroads in this direction. The present authors subsequently reinspected the Cruickshank study and reported on, and identified additional studies. In this process they also made use of writings, about teacher educators, that were more notional and impressionistic in

nature. Such writing, characterized by values, opinions and personal observations, add significant detail to the emerging picture of the teacher education.

At this juncture in the inquiry we are able to provide a synthesis of the impressions of what is known about members of the education professoriate. Yet to be done is speculation on the meaning of findings and, of course, significant correlational and experimental study that eventually would serve to answer the etiological question, Who is an effective teacher educator?

FORMATIVE EXPERIENCES OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

Teacher educators have spent little time researching the background, education, and early experiences of their colleagues, however, answers to the following questions are beginning to emerge. Who chooses to become a teacher educator? Are there particular types of individuals who choose teacher education as a career? Is there a standard career preparation path for teacher educators as there appears to be for other professions? Or, is the background, education, and early work experience of teacher educators as varied as the roles they eventually assume in higher education?

Family Background

Social class. One characteristic explored by scholars interested in the formative experiences of teacher educators is social class origins. Studies conducted during the 1970's and early 80's revealed that the typical teacher educator was from a middle or lower-middle class home (Carter, 1981; Prichard, Fen, and Buxton, 1971). In her study of 28 tenure-track education faculty members with curriculum and instruction assignments at one

university, Carter found the vast majority had fathers in blue collar occupations and mothers who classified themselves as "housewives". Such findings were consistent with those of Prichard, Fen, and Buxton who surveyed all full-time college of education teachers holding the rank of assistant professor or higher at four institutions in the Big Eight Conference and individuals in the same positions at four smaller state universities. Prichard et al. found that over half of 267 respondents were from homes in which the father was an unskilled laborer or a farmer. More than half of the fathers of respondents and 43% of the mothers in this sample had not completed high school.

Contrast such results with those for the broader professoriate. In a campus-wide study of faculty, Finkelstein (1984) noted 40% came from managerial, semiprofessional, or professional families; an additional 20% came from business backgrounds; and only 25% came from working class families. Further, professors from the general professoriate were twice as likely to have fathers who were college graduates and nine times as likely to have fathers who had engaged in graduate work.

Differences were found in the social class origins of male and female teacher educators. According to Prichard et al. (1971) only 12% of male teacher educators came from homes in which the father was a professional or business executive. The corresponding figure for females was 62%. By comparison, female faculty come from relatively higher social classes. It would appear that a career in teacher education provides males with the opportunity for upward social mobility while for females it may be a professional preference only for those who have been excluded from other professions.

Social class origins may be changing. Carter (1981) has suggested that the familial social class of teacher educators may be rising since, in her study, those faculty members who had earned the doctoral degree since 1970 were from smaller families of a slightly higher social class. More up to date studies are required to confirm this hypothesis.

Geographic Origins. Data on the geographic origins of the teacher educator may add to our understanding of value systems and at the same time fill in some background detail. Yarger, Howey and Joyce (1977) using the results of the National Survey of Preservice Education (Palo Alto, CA., 1977) found that faculty tended to come from smaller cities and rural areas in larger numbers than is typical of the general population. In their sample of 420 faculty members representing 175 teacher training institutions, it was found that 75% were from population centers of 100,000 people or less and 40% of that number were from rural areas.

Ducharme and Agne (1989) after collecting information on nearly 1200 professors of education at 32 institutions ranging from private four year liberal arts colleges to major state universities write of "measures of parochialism". They took the distance from home to the college attended by the teacher educators in their sample as an indicator of this parochialism. Nearly 60% of the study sample went no further from home than 100 miles; 75% did not go beyond 300 miles; 30% went no further than 25 miles.

Although the majority of those surveyed by Joyce et al. (1977) taught relatively close to where they grew up or worked, the trend appears to be changing. Forty seven percent of the faculty members in Rush's study (1983) had held positions in states other than that of previous employment. Hiring people from areas well-removed from the former employing institution is

proving to be more common than heretofore.

Education

Precollegiate Education. There is limited information regarding the precollegiate education of teacher educators. Carter (1981) found that 22 of 28 teacher educators in her sample had attended public school with completely or primarily Anglo populations and they had interacted only with their own ethnic group at least until they reached high school. The great majority indicated that their public school experiences were positive, parental support was strong and most could describe individual teachers who had significantly influenced their lives. Carter also found that, even during elementary school, these future teacher educators had placed a high emphasis on academic success whether or not parents overtly stated academic excellence as a goal.

Collegiate Education. In her study, Carter (1981) uncovered the fact that teacher educators had not followed the expected pattern of an undergraduate degree with a major in education. Most had earned their bachelors degrees with majors outside a college or department of education. Katz and Raths (1982) found that 33% of 88 social studies methods professors surveyed had undergraduate history majors, 11% had social science majors, and 30% had education majors.

It appears that the typical baccalaureate program did little to "liberate" the conservative mind set with which future teacher educators entered their programs, but rather, continued to reinforce previously established preferences. Due, at least in part, to limited family funds, such students attended a college near home, so that they were not even exposed to the

cultural variations inherent in different locales (Lanier & Little, 1986). This also held true when they became teacher educators. In a survey completed by teacher education faculty and students at nearly 200 institutions (Joyce, Howey, Yarger, Harbeck, and Kluwin, 1977) the picture of an ethnocentric education faculty was supported. Data from this survey indicated that most faculty had settled in universities relatively close to where they had grown up or taught. These individuals were monolingual, with less than 1% able to instruct in a language other than their native tongue.

Furthermore, the financial constraints associated with lower social class origins and low teacher salaries provided limited opportunities for full-time graduate work (Lanier and Little, 1986). Analyzing surveys from faculty at seven types of institutions to obtain information about the complexity of the education professoriate, Ducharme and Agne (1982) found that graduate students continued to earn a livelihood while pursuing part-time study at nearby universities. Carter (1981) found the vast majority of respondents had taken coursework in a piecemeal fashion at more than one location.

Thus, teacher educators entering the field of higher education were much more apt to hold conformist orientations, utilitarian views of knowledge, and intellectual propensities that were less analytical than those traditionally held in high regard at the university level. Ducharme & Agne (1982) remark that such a perspective often makes "adjusting to and accepting the norms and expectations of academe, difficult".(p. 33)

The Doctorate. An analysis of data from Roger's 1963 survey (cited in Counelis, 1969) of 35,888 professors revealed that proportionately fewer teacher educators held doctoral degrees than faculty in other academic departments. By contrast, Clark and Guba, guided by the results of a 1977

survey, could report that the overwhelming majority of 1387 teacher educators selected at random from 131 schools, colleges, and departments of education had an earned doctorate and were actually trained at a higher degree level than their academic counterparts in other departments. Approximately 80% of the faculty surveyed, at AACTE affiliated colleges and universities, in the 1987 and 1988 Research about Teacher Education (RATE) studies held doctorates.

The nature of doctoral programs in education has been studied with regard to the degree to which research has been emphasized and teacher educators have been prepared to conduct scholarship. Addressing this issue, Cruickshank (1984) indicated that often teacher educators lack the aptitude for and/or training in inquiry. Yarger and Smith (1990) noted that any research that teacher educators conduct will be within the limits imposed by the researcher's background and training. Such a statement was supported by the results of a study by Champion (1984) who, while surveying 30 teacher educators from institutions of various sizes to ascertain use of research in teacher preparation courses, found that faculty's research experiences as graduate students instilled both a mistrust of researchers' claims and an interest in a particular kind of research.

Those studying the nature of doctoral programs in teacher education tend to agree that there is a lack of coherence and organization as to the manner in which teacher educators are trained, which circumstance, according to Ryan (1974), is one of the reasons why the field has remained "fluid and soft". He believes that there is "no clear set of expectations of what a teacher educator ought to know and be able to do" (p. 159).

In their desire to improve the quality of teacher educators, various authors have positioned themselves in favor of a mandatory, national and

standardized certification system for teacher educators. Watts (1984) has suggested that certification requirements include an earned doctorate in education, three years minimum of successful teaching experience, and an acceptable score on a standardized examination of pedagogical knowledge. To that list, Zimpher (1974) would add diverse personal experience and teaching in settings other than schools.

The quality and preparation of candidates for the profession remains a cause for concern. Ryan (1974), complains that we have no clear system of preparation for the teacher educator with programs being "patchwork affairs of very spotty quality" (p. 159). He worries that this lack of coherence and organization in training future teacher educators may frighten away talented candidates. Cruickshank (1974), echoes these sentiments but in a subsequent article (1977) he sets out a plan to identify the abilities of teacher educators and how best to utilize them in the cause of teacher education.

Public School Experience

Length. Prior work experience is the variable most consistently documented in the variety of surveys related to early experiences of teacher educators. The percentage of teacher educators having public school experience varied. In the Yarger et al. (1977) analysis of the social class origins of teacher educators, it was noted that 90% of those surveyed had public school experience, with an average of eight years in teaching and two years in administration. Darter (1980) reported that 94% of 586 professional teacher education faculty in 36 public and private colleges and universities in Texas had public school experience. This differs somewhat from a figure of 71% reported by Ducharme & Agne (1982). Rush and Wood's (1982) survey of 1000 randomly selected teacher education faculty yielded 405 completed

questionnaires and a figure of 2.74 as the mean number of years of K-12 public school experience. This is in direct contrast to the 10 year average found by Joyce, et al. (1977). Overall, the average years of public school teaching experience seems to fall within the 3 to 6 year range and this factor appears to have remained relatively constant over time. In the 1986 RATE study (AACTE, 1987) it was found that over 80% of methods faculty had at least 4 to 6 years of experience in school; 65% had at least 7 to 9 years, and 35% had at least 10 years.

Differing conclusions were drawn regarding the relevancy of public school teaching experience. Darter (1980) concluded that teacher educators' public school teaching experience left them well qualified to prepare teachers. Ducharme and Agne (1982), however, reported that their findings did not demonstrate that teacher educators were contemporary experts in elementary and secondary education.

Commented upon, in the literature, was the constricting nature of the public school experience on the development of those values that were noted above as critical to success in higher education. According to Lanier and Little (1986), the rule-bound, conservative nature of the public schools has often served to reinforce the conservative mind set and other-directedness of future teacher educators.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

What do we know about teacher educators' age, ethnicity, gender and emotional and intellectual status? Do teacher educators have high self-confidence? What image do they portray to the public sector and to their colleagues in other departments? Are the professional values held by

teacher educators in harmony with those held by the administration? What perceptions do teacher educators have regarding (a) the importance of their profession, (b) a national system for accrediting teacher education programs, (c) inservice training, and (d) major problems of teacher educators? How well do they teach? How well do they relate to students and colleagues? These and other questions will be discussed in this section.

Age. In 1960, the median ages of faculty men and women in college and university teaching were 39.1 and 43.3 years, respectively (Folger and Nam, 1967). According to Bayer (1970) the median age of college faculty members in 1968-69 was 39 years. In the decade of the 70's the mean age appears to have been between 36 and 43 (Carter et al., 1981; Yarger, Howey, & Joyce, 1977). Carter (1981) found that teacher educators entered doctoral programs later in life, cutting short the length of this their second career. Ducharme and Kluender (1987) found that the mean age of male faculty members was over 50 and of female faculty was 47 years. This was borne out in Reynolds' 1992 study of professional self esteem among teacher educators. He found a mean age of 47.4 years for female faculty and 51.8 years for males. Most recent studies indicate that the faculty is 'graying'.

Ethnicity. Ninety percent of teacher educators surveyed were white (RATE, 1987; Carter et al., 1981; Morgan & Newall, 1982; Rush, 1983; Yarger, Howey, & Joyce, 1977; Ducharme & Kluender, 1987). Carter indicated that teacher educators were "an homogeneous group which had essentially the same characteristics as school teachers" (1981, p. 28) with extremely limited interaction with other cultural and ethnic groups. Based on data from Burcalow's 1984 study, few faculty members possess necessary skills to

incorporate multicultural components into their courses.

Gender. Most studies indicated that 35-40% of teacher educators were females while 60-65% were males (Yarger, Howey, & Joyce, 1977; Carter et al., 1981; Ducharme & Kluender, 1987; Mager & Myers, 1983) although the trend may be changing as more females are being hired (Rush, 1983). Overwhelming "maleness", at least at the levels of assistant and associate professor, is no longer a characteristic of the profession and this trend is likely to continue as more women than men prepare to become teacher educators (McCullough, 1992).

Emotional and Intellectual Status. Blanchard (1982), in a study of the mental health status of teacher educators conducted between 1976 - 1978, received responses to a questionnaire from 31,857 faculty representing 656 universities. He could report that 25% of the nation's professors may be considered neurotic; an estimated 25% may be classified as having character disorders; 25% may be characterized as socially maladjusted; 12% may share mental and emotional disturbances; 30% had contemplated suicide; 50% were annoyed by their peers most of the time; 60% said students got on their nerves; 42% reported that tension and irritation were ongoing, 38% worried a good part of the time; 42% were incapacitated by mood swings and about 50% had trouble sleeping. He observed that these disorders rarely required hospitalization or psychiatric help and that professors observed for the duration of the study seemed to function normally but recommended that higher education take steps to address the mental health problems among teacher education faculty, including the adoption of emotional screening tests for prospective faculty. Looked at more positively, it could be that teacher

educators do not differ significantly from other professional groups or from the population at large. According to the findings of a six year survey conducted by the National Institute of Mental Health and published in 1984, one in five adults - about 30 million men and women - suffered from a mental disorder during any given six month period. Between 29 - 38% of almost 10,000 people interviewed had experienced at least one psychiatric problem in the course of their lifetime (Hales & Williams, 1986).

The emotional well-being of teacher educators may be negatively impacted by the demands made upon them. In the Schuster and Bowen study (1985; cited in Howey and Zimpher, 1990) over 500 interviews were conducted with faculty members and academic administrators in 38 colleges and universities to determine problems and issues faced by faculty. Findings indicated that many faculty were angry, embittered, and feeling devalued and abandoned. Likewise, Carter (1981), during focused interviews with 28 tenure track faculty members from one institution, observed that the tenure and promotion process caused considerable duress. Conversely, Yarger, Howey and Joyce (1977) found most of the 420 faculty members in their survey did not feel overly stressed out because they did not view themselves as being in a 'publish or perish' environment.

Regarding the intellectual status of teacher educators, Counelis (1969) reported that holders of education doctorates tended to have lower recorded intelligence scores than the mean scores for those in other doctoral fields. James D. Koerner's (1964), biting criticism that, "the inferior intellectual quality of the education faculty is the fundamental limitation of the field (p. 17)", was quoted by no less than four of the authors surveyed. If Koerner's indictment is correct we need to give special attention to admission standards into the field.

Self-confidence/social success. Teacher educators reported success in both social and academic type experiences throughout their public school years (Carter, 1981). No data was uncovered in the literature regarding their feelings of self confidence and success during college years and subsequent employment. However, research has been conducted about the feelings of self-confidence and the social success they experience once they joined the ranks of teacher educators. The results indicate a sharp drop in self confidence from the levels experienced during the earlier years of public school experience. Stark (1986), in a monumental study, reviewed 3000 journal articles and analyzed 2230 survey responses from professional-field faculty in 346 different colleges and 732 entry-level programs including: architecture, business administration, education, engineering, journalism, law, nursing, pharmacy, and social work. Stark detected, in teacher educators, low levels of self esteem resulting from perceptions that; (a) they had little support from society in general (b) education had a negative image in the media, (c) they enjoyed relatively little support from the private sector, (d) they had only modest influence in the professional community, and (d) less than ample rewards were offered to graduates.

University-based teacher educators, when compared to classroom teachers, felt they had the ability to influence more people or have greater impact on the nature and quality of the teaching profession (Isham, Carter, & Stribling, 1981). Schuttenberg, Patterson, and Sutton (1985) surveyed 391 education faculty from 38 institutions to ascertain their perceptions regarding their achievements and future potential in relation to life/career phase and found that younger faculty perceived themselves to be more effective in terms of academic production than their senior colleagues.

In a detailed review of the literature on the characteristics of education professors, Allison (1985) found that they were perceived by public school personnel as being out of touch with the "real world" and by faculty in other departments as being too pragmatic. In a study designed to explore the validity of such criticism, Darter (1980) found that teacher educators in both public and private colleges stayed current by: (a) supervising student teachers, (b) involving themselves in inservice training and field-based programs, and (c) being used as resource people, demonstrators, substitutes, or in some cases being involved in teacher exchanges. Darter concluded that the criticisms appear to be unmerited.

Values/Attitudes. One factor that comes through clearly in any study of values and attitudes is that the values of the individual teacher educator and those of the profession and the institution are not congruent. Asked to identify present professional values held by teacher educators, Carter et al. (1981) found a dissonance between what teacher educators valued and what they believed the university valued. The university was viewed as placing less value on undergraduate teaching and the greatest value on scholarly contributions.

Roles and expectations, time constraints and budgetary concerns, tenure and promotion are viewed from different perspectives by the individual teacher educator and the administration. Kevin Ryan (1974) seeing this dissonance as the ultimate frustration says with a touch of 'black humor', "in may darkest hour I sometimes define teacher education as that professional activity away from which good people move" (p. 15).

As mentioned before, the origins of the values that teacher educators bring to higher education have been inferred through analyzing the types of

influence that social class has on child rearing, formal education, and occupation. Kohn (1969) found that conformist values were stressed more in families of lower social classes and with female children and that such conformist values were more likely to lead to tendencies toward authoritarian conservatism and other-directedness. Lanier and Little (1986) postulated that the same predisposition to conformist values that future teacher educators learn at home were reinforced at school; they were discouraged from developing substantive, ideational flexibility. Likewise, they had few opportunities to explore a variety of cultural experiences and deal with concepts and subjects requiring abstract thought.

Perceptions. Senter & Houston (1981), who studied groups of 100 teacher educators/non-educators and futurists/non-futurists to determine how the four groups differed on 17 position statements, concluded that teacher educators believed that: (a) there must be a concerted and vigorous effort among professionals to expand the knowledge base (such sentiments can also be found in Carter, 1981; Guba & Clark, 1977); (b) their profession is important to the improvement of education; (c) teacher education programs should commit themselves to the goal of eliminating sexism within their own programs and the profession as a whole; (d) in a rapidly changing society, education, particularly teacher education, is slow to change; and (e) there does not appear to be support among teacher educators for a strong national system for accrediting teacher education programs.

According to Stark (1986), teacher educators believed that: (a) they should study the context in which the profession is practiced; (b) professional socialization was an important business of the college; and (c) students should be taught professional ethics. Stark also found the faculty perceptions

in research institutions differed markedly from those in teaching institutions.

The majority of teacher educators surveyed (70%) favored a variety of curricular orientations; almost one-half indicated a need for more student counseling, about one-third saw a need for more program development in the area of multiethnic education and 25% would develop more programs for helping preservice teachers deal more effectively with poor children (Yarger, Howey & Joyce, 1977).

Rush and Wood (1982) surveyed teacher educators to gauge their perceptions regarding faculty productivity and the updating of knowledge and skills. Inservice training was the preferred option for the majority (75%). Teacher educators preferred attending professional conferences and release time for independent study. Returning to K-12 teaching was least preferred option. Harder (1981) sent mailed questionnaires to 300 randomly selected AACTE affiliates (65 responded) to determine how faculty productivity is evaluated. Results indicated that professional development was not considered to be important. Mager and Myers (1983) sent questionnaires to 1557 doctoral graduates in an effort to determine how new professors spend their professional time. The 191 faculty members who responded indicated that personal professional development almost always received a minimal commitment of time.

PROFESSIONAL ATTRIBUTES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

Why do persons choose to become teacher educators? What are their major responsibilities? How many hours a week do they spend on work related activities? How productive are they with respect to scholarship?

What is the most common rank of teacher educators? Do they get along with students and with peers? Is their teaching ability above average? Are they satisfied with their job?

Motives for becoming teacher educators. Focused interviews with 26 Curriculum and Instruction faculty, enabled Isham, Carter, and Stribling (1981) to determine that 60% had "fallen in love" with teaching and had seen university-based teacher education as another teaching option, not qualitatively different from teaching younger children and youth. About half the respondents believed that in the university setting there would be greater opportunities for personal and academic freedom, intellectual challenge and stimulation, and greater opportunity to influence the nature and quality of future teachers and the teaching profession. Being able to combine interests in various disciplines with an interest in teaching was also seen as an attractor to teacher education for nearly one-third of those interviewed. Such attractions and rewards, coupled with lack of opportunities for advancement within classroom teaching, frustration with the static nature of the profession and the practice of teaching, and dissatisfaction with one's public school colleagues, worked together to help them reach the decision to move to higher education. Similar reasons for the career shift to teacher education were found in the work of Carter et al. (1981) and Joyce et al. (1977). Seldom, if ever, was the motivation to engage in research given as a primary reason for moving into higher education (Ducharme & Agne, 1982).

A checklist of ten external (situational) factors and ten internal (personal interest) factors was used with a total of 752 faculty members from 32 private and public higher education institutions in Minnesota to determine factors influencing choice of college teaching as a career. Any

significant factors omitted from these listings were to be added by the respondents. External factors included: (a) suggestion of high school staff member; (b) recommendation of college teacher; (c) encouragement of college administrator or counselor; (d) influence of parents, relatives, or friends; (e) graduate fellowship or assistantship; (f) college teaching job offered; (g) spouse planned to be a college teacher; and (h) just "drifted" into college teaching. Internal factors influencing choice of a college teaching career were: (a) interested in subject matter, (b) desired to work with college age students, (b) wanted a job with security and prestige, (c) able to contribute to field, (d) pursue research activities, (e) make greatest contribution to society in this area, (f) liked working conditions, (g) desire college academic and social life, (h) desire to model others, and (i) more of an intellectual challenge. Personal interest factors elicited a higher proportion of responses than did the external factors, suggesting that internal factors tended to play a larger role in determining entrance to college teaching as a career. Almost 50% indicated that some type of personal interest or motivation was the single most important factor influencing their decision, as compared with 26% who specified a situational factor, and 27% who did not designate any single factor as being most influential (Stecklein & Eckert, 1958). A 1959 study by the same pair of researchers in which a total of 736 randomly sampled faculty members in Minnesota's 32 recognized higher education institutions found that the following motives influenced people to become college teachers: (a) position was available, (b) influence of teachers, (c) chance, and (d) position was offered.

Often the transition from classroom teaching to higher education occurred without prior plans to work toward a university position. In the Isham et al. (1981) study, it was found that the vast majority of faculty

members had postponed the decision to become teacher educators until late in their graduate program, with only 15% making decisions prior to beginning their doctoral work. Nearly all of the "late deciders" tended to drift into teacher education.

Responsibilities of teacher educators. Teaching, scholarship and service responsibilities have traditionally been the major components of academic life in research-oriented institutions. However, Mager and Myers (1983) revealed that the list of duties that fall to the lot of teacher educators are much more numerous and diverse than these traditional designations. Myers and Mager (1980) surveyed new professors completing their first, second or third years and found that, in most instances, work fell into the administrative/service cluster and teaching. Administration/service included such things as working on administrative tasks; grant writing and carrying out funded projects; performing service activities to the department or larger institution, and the local community; and completing forms, reports, correspondence and regular travel related to work. Additionally Myers and Mager found that research and other scholarship was reported more frequently by new professors who worked 60 or more hours a week than those who worked less than 60 hours a week.

Yarger, Howey and Joyce (1977) reported that nearly two-thirds of all teacher educators viewed teaching as their primary responsibility. Even in research institutions teaching appeared to be the most heavily involved mission area (Guba and Clark, 1977). Sullivan's (1988) research study determined that teacher educators spent approximately one-half of their time on instruction. Yarger, Howey and Joyce could report that the education professoriate was busy with many things: (a) three-fourths spent a portion of

their time advising students; (b) over one-half reported they spent time in the supervision of field experiences; (c) just under one-third spent time in thesis advising or on doctoral committees; and (d) 84% reported some administrative responsibility. To this list Rush and Woods (1982) would add participation in grant writing (48%), field service activities (82%), and inservice activities (75%). Setting priorities and balancing the numerous demands made upon them was a problem shared by many teacher educators (Mager & Myers, 1983).

In the 1960's when enrollments were increasing rapidly, teaching was a high priority. During the late 1970's, however, the supply of available faculty increased and enrollments declined. Research and the procurement of outside funding became the route to tenure and promotion. Older faculty considered that the rules had changed. They had been hired to teacher and should be rewarded for teaching.

In terms of the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators, Moorish (1976) gave primary attention to the teacher educator as an agent of change with university faculty involved in disseminating research results to the teacher practitioner. Drummond and Houston (Massamari et al., 1978) put the focus on both preservice and inservice education with teacher educators serving as consultants, facilitators and linking agents. In the model created by McNergney and Carrier (1981) the role of the teacher educator is that of enhancing teacher growth and translating and applying research to practice. Schaefer (1969) suggested a cooperative role for teacher educators working alongside scholar-teachers generating knowledge about teaching and learning.

Kise and Darr (1981) write of the conditions affecting the performance of teacher educators and the difficult and conflicting demands made upon

them. Teaching and service functions often conflict with research and publication. Personal demands vary according to the way individuals define their role. Demands arise out of State and Federal mandates concerning student rights, minority rights, discriminatory practices. Teacher educators can be affected by 'turf building' due to perceived status and elitism. Classroom activities requiring extensive preparation and the field component of teacher preparation may take large amounts of time but enjoy little status. When these demands are excessive the time devoted to reading and attending professional meetings may decrease leading to professional stagnation (Kise & Darr, 1981).

Work load. According to a study by Ducharme and Agne (1982), 14% of teacher educators surveyed spent less than 3 hours a week in the classroom, 56% spent from 4 to 9 hours and 25% spent between 10 and 15 hours a week in the classroom. Guba and Clark (1977) concurred, finding the three-course teaching load to be most typical, but four-course loads were certainly not uncommon. Harder (1981) found a six-credit-hour teaching load to be the norm for doctoral programs and an eight to nine-credit-hour load to be a normal teaching assignment in a non-doctoral program.

In their 1982 study, Ducharme and Agne found that 87% of the professors surveyed spent 41+ hours a week in professional work. Mager and Myers (1983) reported that work hours ranged from fewer than 40 hours to over 70 hours per week, with almost half of the teacher educators reporting between 50 and 59 hours per week. The median work week appeared to be in the 50 to 54 hour range (Metzler & Freedman, 1985).

According to Myers and Mager (1980) a typical new professor works between 50 to 69 hours per week. Approximately 75% of their work time is

engaged in teaching, doing administrative tasks and advising students. Very few, if any, are found to be doing any research or scholarship. Even less were engaged in professional self-development and course and program development. Time was the major problem for new professors. As they gained experience at a particular institution and as they reached and passed promotion and tenure, time spent at work decreased (Mager & Myers, 1983).

Scholarly productivity. The pressure to teach or conduct research was one of several conflicts teacher educators in private institutions experienced according to Nystrom, King and Wimpelberg (1984). They studied faculty at 200 private, liberal arts colleges and universities to determine if SCDE faculty would assign a higher value to teaching related activities and community service than to other activities and to ascertain if faculty would report that their host institutions valued professional activity and research.

While the literature regularly makes reference to the importance of research as a gauge of academic excellence, there appears to be some debate as to the amount of research generated by teacher educators. A study by Yarger, Howey and Joyce (1977) found that 50% of teacher educators reported some involvement in research projects while other researchers (Raths, 1985; Clark and Guba, 1977) found that only 20% of teacher educators were doing research in the field. Raths (1985) designed a study to address two questions; to what extent do teacher educators inquire and carry out research in the field of teacher education? and to what extent do teacher educators identify with the field of education? Responses were received from 95 teacher educators. Data suggested that respondents strongly identified with organizations associated with subject matter, as only 7% gave

teacher education associations their primary allegiance. On a more promising note, researchers have found that teacher educators who had earned their doctoral degrees within the last two decades place a greater emphasis on the value of research (Carter, 1981; Ducharme & Agne, 1989; Shuttenberg, Patterson, and Sutton, 1985), particularly those who have been involved as research associates and/or have published during their doctoral programs (Adams, 1986). Champion (1984) could report that teacher educators cited numerous role demands as inhibiting research involvement.

A number of notional articles on the subject of teacher educators' research were uncovered in the literature. Wayson (1974) reminded us that 'folklore and alchemy' were no longer the basis for teacher education and we were warned more forcefully by Ducharme (1985) that "folkways, anecdotal wisdom and methodological ruses . . . do not belong on campus" (p. 11). Ornstein (1985) pointed out that the contribution of science to teacher education is by way of research. He made the further point that teacher educators need to validate research models with real classroom situations; "good research is based on practice, and good practice is based on research" (p. 30). Associated with this concern for research was a commitment to scholarship and inquiry. Kelly and Cyphert (1983) suggest that in an effort to increase the research and publication productivity of teacher educators, the profession nurture graduate students who are highly academically motivated, place them with the most productive researchers, encourage professors to co-author with these graduate students and assist them to obtain positions in universities that encourage and expect scholarly productivity. Ford (1983) sees commitment to the profession, as exemplified in the teacher educator's scholarly activities for "research and publication, serve as valid indicators of continuous growth" (p. 138). Ryan (1974) is emphatic that all teacher

educators need to be involved, continually, in scholarly inquiry. For Wisniewski (1986) "a commitment to scholarship, which is the essence of university life, must characterize those who prepare teachers (p. 288)".

The Ducharme and Agne (1982) survey revealed that 76% of teacher educators had published at least one article in refereed journals during their professional lifetime. Of those, 27% had published six or more. Further analysis of the research showed that relatively few teacher educators engaged in research or development that resulted in publication. An average publication rate per person was found, indicating that an individual published only one article every three years (Joyce, Howey, Yarger, Harbeck and Kluwin, 1977; Yarger, Howey and Joyce, 1977). Ducharme and Agne (1982) found a somewhat higher number of publications. Fifty-two percent reported having had an article accepted in the past year, 45% were found to have published six or more articles during their careers, and 41% had published at least one book.

Institutional expectations Institutional expectations are a matter of consideration for a number of scholars in the field. Institutions with a research and graduate program mission place their emphasis upon the research and publication function. Here teacher educators are expected to compete with professors in other units on campus for promotion and tenure based upon the number and prestige of publications and research grants obtained. In smaller, state-supported or private institutions the emphasis may be on teaching and service with student evaluation of instruction and the number of committee assignments playing a more dominant role in promotion and tenure (Kise & Darr, 1981). Ducharme (1981) points to a division between older faculty who gained tenure when scholarly activity

embraced teaching and service activities and who now define productivity in terms of their own personal goals rather than someone else's criteria, and younger faculty fighting the tenure battle; desperately publishing on scattered topics in journals which will accept their work, having their role defined for them by the exigencies of the day.

Professorial rank. Another variable studied was the relative ranking of the education professoriate. The 1987 and 1988 RATE studies reported that most education professors were largely tenured and were placed in the upper ranks. According to faculty surveyed in 1986, 45% were full professors; 30% were associate professors; and 20% were assistant professors (Howey and Zimpher, 1990).

Traditionally, female faculty have been underrepresented at the rank of associate and full professor. Although 28% of the foundations professors surveyed in the 1987 RATE study were women, only 19% were full professors, compared with 55% of males who had obtained this rank. Not surprisingly, the rank of assistant professor was held by 45% of the women, and only 10% of the males (Howey and Zimpher, 1990).

An indication that these gender imbalances may be shifting was found in the 1983 study by Rush in which he surveyed 5% of the individuals who were selected for positions advertised in the Chronicles of Higher Education for the 1980-81 school year. He found that the majority of available positions had been filled by Caucasian females.

Ability to Establish Mutually Beneficial Relationships with Students and Colleagues. Research appeared to be limited in this area of student relationships with teacher educators. Indications were that

preservice teachers viewed teacher educators as experienced, able to offer clinical help, and were school-knowledgeable when compared to cooperating teachers (Yarger and Joyce, 1977). The same study further revealed that 67% of teacher education students were "very satisfied" with their professional courses. Teacher educators derive a great deal of satisfaction from working with students (Nussel, Wiersma & Rusche, 1988).

Teacher educators also derived a great deal of satisfaction in working with their peers. However, developing professional relationships can be difficult for teacher educators, especially beginning professors. Myers and Mager (1980) found that new teacher educators were engaged in few collegial interactions and participated very little in professional organizations. A survey conducted by Carter (1981) reported similar results of limited interaction on campus. Not all the interactions that did occur were professional in nature and some on-campus interactions actually had negative effects. Collegiality appeared easier to initiate and sustain in smaller colleges and universities. In a series of reports on research at private colleges and universities, King, Nystrom and Wimpelberg (1984) reported that 51% of teacher educators held joint appointments in various departments, and 90% collaborated with non-education faculty in program decisions.

Teaching Styles and Abilities. Teacher educators reported limited use of a variety of instructional alternatives. Rarely did they use laboratory regimens such as microteaching, simulations, and so forth (Yarger et al., 1977). Conceptual advancements such as interaction analysis and the taxonomy of educational objectives were found to be implemented only on a very limited basis (Yarger and Joyce, 1977). Findings indicated that teacher educators mainly used lecture, discussion, observation and presentation of

student reports (Yarger et al., 1977; Katz and Raths, 1982). Overall, teacher educators indicated that their teaching and testing styles tended to be more divergent than convergent (Mack, 1987).

It appears that teacher educators do not practice what they preach. The study by Mack (1987) was conducted to test the general proposition that, although professors of education possess knowledge about concepts of creativity, little is disseminated to undergraduate students. Data was collected through surveys given to student teachers and teacher educators at universities located in the north-western portion of the country. Findings indicated that while teacher educators believed creativity important for teachers to use in their classrooms, implementation of concepts for fostering creativity were often not introduced in these professors' classrooms or were given a low priority. Student teachers did not perceive creative teaching being modeled or taught to any great extent.

Relatedly, Champion (1984) surveyed, interviewed and examined data from 30 teacher educators in an Eastern state, who instructed undergraduate students about research. He found that a majority of these teacher educators mentioned research in lectures, included it in class discussions, and assigned readings about research, but a much smaller percentage modeled research processes or findings in their teaching behaviors (37%), or conducted class demonstrations to illustrate research ideas and processes (27%).

Teacher educators were given higher ratings for effective teaching by practicing teachers than by student teachers (Tamier and Peretz, 1983). The nationwide Rush and Wood (1982) study, of 1000 randomly sampled faculty members, may suggest that teacher educators have effective teaching styles in that almost 30% of those questioned had received an award for excellence in teaching.

Margaret Ford (1983) deals with the qualities that go to make a good teacher and identifies a dozen variables related to excellence in teaching. Quoting Schwartz (1980) she points out that many teacher educators are turned loose on their students without any formal recognition that teaching is an art that requires its own knowledge and skills. Ryan (1974) stated as the first of his general goals in the education of teacher educators, "to develop individuals who are models of the good teacher" (p. 160). What Ryan had in view is the teacher educator as "the exemplar of the moral, caring, effective, and integrated human being" (p. 160), a tall order, but then he wrote very much as the idealist and looked not at 'what is' but rather what 'should be' in the world of teacher educators. For Cruickshank (1974), "teacher educators must themselves be master teachers, able to demonstrate, not just talk about, new methodology (p. 150)".

Job satisfaction. The majority of teacher educators regarded their schools, colleges, or departments of education (SCDEs) as good environments for teaching. This is especially true for those working in bachelor-level institutions according to Guba & Clark (1977) who sent questionnaires to 2915 education faculty members at 131 SCDEs to determine how they viewed their mission and to ascertain faculty characteristics. Ducharme and Agne (1982) concurred in this finding. They found that the majority liked working in an institution of higher education and would be loath to return to the lower schools. Job satisfaction was found to be correlated with fewer hours of teaching, more time spent on administrative activities, increased academic rank, salary, age, number of years at the current institution, and total number of years as a teacher educator (Sullivan, 1988). A study by Nussel, Wiersma & Rusche (1988) found that being a professor was more

satisfying for men, single teacher educators, tenured faculty, and for persons with the rank of either professor or instructor.

Asked what aspect of their roles they enjoyed the most and the least, teacher educators indicated that they enjoyed interacting with students the most and the constraints of bureaucracy and service activities the least (Carter et al., 1981). They also highly valued the freedom afforded by the university to pursue their own interests. Three themes stood out when respondents were asked to share an insight or problem: (a) control of time, (b) dealing with peers, and (c) creating an intellectual life (Mager & Myers, 1983).

REWARDS AND RECOGNITION

Legitimacy concerns. The legitimacy of the position of teacher educators on campus was a concern for a number of scholars. Ducharme (1985) argued that teacher education belonged on campus if it is a legitimate academic activity based on scholarship and inquiry. Similarly, Wisniewski (1986) believed that teacher educators who do not share this commitment contribute to education's second-class status. Ryan (1974) believed that teacher educators tend to be marginal people at the periphery of the university community. "They are people with an immensely important function but little status, expertise or power to effect change" (p. 160). Cruickshank (1974) cautioned that even though teacher educators have an uncomfortable position on many campuses one should not conclude that teacher education should be taken out of the university. In this he is supported by Ryan (1974) who predicted that "separating teachers and

teacher educators from the institutions devoted to the development and dissemination of knowledge would cast them adrift from a major source of change and improvement" (p. 160). Ducharme (1985) was not so hopeful and pointed to the fact that the conflict between the culture of the university and that of teacher education is long-standing and may not be fully resolvable.

Image problems. The education professoriate has an image problem. The professoriate in attempting to serve two masters, the academic community and the teaching profession finds itself criticized by both groups. On the one hand teacher educators are perceived by school teachers as too aloof from, and out of touch with, the practical realities of the field and current practice. On the other hand they are perceived by campus colleagues in other units as too field focused, too pragmatic and perhaps too unscholarly. Shirley Clark (1975) in an article in which she attempts to "locate the education professoriate within the professional schools of the contemporary university" (p. 26) states her belief that the school of education as compared with the school of medicine or the school of law frequently has to deal with a slightly 'outcast' label on campus.

Schwebel (1989), who is usually rather direct in his comment, states that "their (education professors) prestige is low; as a group they are tolerated rather than respected" (p. 58). He adds that they get no help from school teachers and administrators who regard their work as irrelevant and little from liberal arts faculty who see them as clothed in the inferior garb of educationists. Wisniewski (1983) worries that if education faculty become successfully enculturated in higher education they will lose engagement with their major interest, the problems of school practice. Teacher educators have yet to resolve the dilemma that exists between the practical vision of teacher

preparation and the university's norms of scholarship and productivity.

The reward system. The reward system for teacher educators is the subject of much speculation by authors researched in this project. Kise and Darr (1981) point to the fact that the system of rewards now in place in the majority of teacher education units may be self-defeating. Older teacher educators who have tenure and have achieved the desired level of promotion tend to look for greater monetary rewards. Their attention may be focused upon retirement benefits rather than academics. The reward system needs to be clearly specified so that members of the profession know what is to be rewarded. "The profession cannot afford the loss of talent that accompanies changes in the reward system every time a new administrator is hired" (Kise and Darr, 1981, p. 73). Equally true is the fact that the profession cannot afford the hidden agendas, jealousies and favoritism that are endemic in many of the extant rewards systems.

'Politics'. For teacher educators as for all the denizens of higher education politics are incorporated into the promotion and reward system. Everyone connected with the institution is affected by these politics but none more than those attempting to make a career in the institution. One must be "sensitive, aware and attentive to the politics if one is to find a place within the institution" (Mager and Myers, 1982, p. 103).

Summary

Can we paint a picture of that individual who is charged with the preparation of the nation's teachers? There is a rich and growing body of

literature on the demographic characteristics of the education professoriate. The "modal" teacher educator is an Anglo male who, at age 50, is slightly older than his counterparts in other fields due, in part, to the 'apprenticeship' he served in the public schools. He was reared in a middle to lower middle class family; his father was a blue collar worker and his mother was a housewife. Conformist values were upheld in his family and later in the culturally homogeneous public school in which he was educated. Such values were reinforced throughout both his years at a non-elite state college and the five or six years of school teaching that he completed prior to beginning his doctoral program. He came from a rural area and, even when entering his graduate training, stayed close to home. He completed his doctoral program in a piecemeal fashion at various institutions, and continued to work while attending graduate school.

As a faculty member our modal teacher educator worked over 50 hours a week, teaching 3 or 4 courses per term. Having attained tenured status he settled in for the duration. He gains a great deal of satisfaction from the autonomy and freedom that the job provides and appreciates the opportunity to work with students. The constraints of the bureaucracy and service activities are among the least enjoyable aspects of the job. Other irritants include salary, poor administrative leadership, the functioning of the academic reward system and time pressure. Overall, he enjoys working in a college of education and he would be loath to return to the environment of the lower schools.

The modal teacher educator considers his job to be stressful as he juggles joint appointments and supervises field experiences. By and large he is in good shape and he deals successfully with the pressures and tensions of the job. He is alarmed by what he sees as a shift in the balance of power

from collegial to bureaucratic structure. This increased centralization directly effects his work experience. A second cause of tension is the increased emphasis on measurable outputs. His traditional normative environment has had to submit to the pressure to produce more giving it the trappings of a utilitarian culture.

Shirley Clark (1975) may have summed it up best. She found "the education professor, according to a synthesis of his roles and responsibilities might be thought of as a brilliant shade of gray" (p. 20).

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